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#### Brief career history

#### Atsufusa Shono

1934: Born in Tokyo

1955: Graduated in physical science from Kyoto University (majored in physics)

1971: Became professor at Sophia University (science and engineering department, electronics faculty), Doctor of Science.

Main publications: "Semiconductor Engineering by Silicon Planar Technology" (published by Nikkan Kogyo Shimbunsha, 1973)

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... if it is high, error tends to occur due to external-noise electromagnetic waves, so it would be better to take the measurements in an electromagnetically shielded state to the extent it is possible to do so.

If one pressure-welds the four probes, allows current I(A) to flow between <1> and <4>, measures the voltage V(V) between <2> and <3>, and sets the needle gaps to  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$  (cm) as in the diagram, then

$$V = \frac{\rho I}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{S_1} + \frac{1}{S_2} - \frac{1}{S_2 + S_3} - \frac{1}{S_1 + S_2} \right) \tag{3.14}$$

and therefore the resistivity p becomes

$$\rho = \frac{2\pi V}{I} \left( \frac{1}{S_1} + \frac{1}{S_2} - \frac{1}{S_2 + S_3} - \frac{1}{S_1 + S_2} \right)^{-1}$$
 (3.15)

and if  $S_1 = S_2 = S_3 = S$ , we have

$$\rho = \frac{2\pi SV}{I} \tag{3.16}$$

Formula (3.16) holds true if the size of the sample is sufficiently greater than the needle, and ideally if it can approach infinity. Because actual samples are of limited size, corrections must be made in consideration of the needle position and the shape of the sample.

It very often becomes necessary to measure the resistivity of a sample whose thickness is considerably less than the needle gap. This happens if, for example, one wants to determine the average resistivity of the diffusion layer in a pn junction that is formed by diffusing impurities, or a low-resistance epitaxial layer is formed on a high-resistance substrate and one is to determine from the average resistivity of the epitaxial layer the concentration of impurities included in the epitaxial layer. In such a case, denoting the thickness of the thin layer in which the current mainly flows by w (cm), the resistivity becomes

$$\rho = \frac{V}{I} w \frac{\pi}{\ln 2} F\left(\frac{w}{s}\right) \tag{3.17}$$

where s is the needle gap and F(w/s) is the correction term given in Table 3.1. As is clear from the table, for a diffusion layer or epitaxial layer that is sufficiently thinner than the needle gap, F(w/s) may be taken to be 1. In this case, the resistivity is given by simply

$$\rho = \frac{V}{I} w \frac{\pi}{\ln 2} \tag{3.18}$$

Because the gap of the four probes is already known, if one prepares a diagram in which the current values are integer multiples of  $\pi/\ln 2$ , the resistivity can be determined simply according to the voltage thickness.

What has been described thus far is the direct-current four-probe method. In taking actual measurements, error arises due to the large contact resistance of the probe and the thermal gradient. To overcome these drawbacks, the alternating current bridge method has been devised, which can quickly measure the distribution of in purities in crystals of silicon or germanium during the zone melting refinement method without performing any processing on the crystals, and is very convenient.

Table 3.1: Correction term	n for the four-probe method					
w/s	F(w/s)					
0.4	0.9995					
0.5	0.9974					
0.5555	0.9948					
0.6250	0.9898					
0.7143	0.9798					
0.8333	0.9600					
1.0	0.9214					
1.1111	0.8907					
1.25	0.8490					
1.4286	0.7938					
1.6666	0.7225					
2.0	0.6336					

#### 3.2.2 Measurement of hole coefficient

From the resistivity one can learn only the product of the number and mobility of the carriers, but the hole coefficient gives the type and number of carriers. And by measuring the temperature dependence of the hole coefficient one can also learn the level of impurities and the temperature dependence of the mobility.

Figure 3.16 illustrates the principle by which the hole coefficient is measured. Ohmic electrodes are provided at both ends of a rectangular sample, and a current I(A) is made to flow. Its direction is taken as the x direction. Next, when an electric field H (gauss) is applied in the y direction, the carriers experience a force in the z direction. With a p-type semiconductor, holes accumulate on the upper surface in Figure 3.16, and with an n-type semiconductor, electrons accumulate there. In the equilibrium state, carriers flow in the x direction and no force acts in the vertical direction. If a magnetic field x is applied in the x direction, the force of this magnetic field that acts on the carriers and the force of the electric field that acts in the x direction are in equilibrium, and

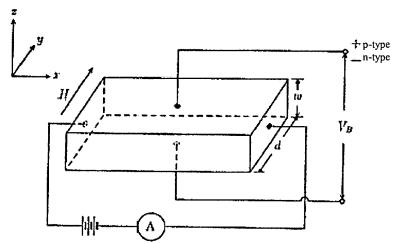


Figure 3.16: Diagram of hole effect measurement principle

$$\frac{qV}{w} = \frac{1}{c}v_x H \tag{3.19}$$

holds true. Here  $v_x$  is the speed of the carriers in the x direction, and denoting by n the carrier concentration, we have

$$v_x = \frac{I}{vwd} \tag{3.20}$$

where c is the speed of light (in cgs units). Therefore, in practical units, a potential difference of

$$V = \frac{10^{-8}IH}{nqd}$$
 (3.21)

arises between the upper and lower surfaces of the sample. Here

$$R_{II} = \frac{1}{nq} \tag{3.22}$$

is called the hole coefficient. The product of  $R_H$  and the electrical conductivity  $\sigma$  (=  $1/\rho$ ) is called the hole mobility and is expressed by

$$u_H = R_H \sigma \tag{3.23}$$

In a semiconductor whose metal or resistivity has degenerated very little, the carriers can be considered to move at a constant speed  $\nu_x$ , and the hole mobility is equal to the flow mobility  $\mu_0$  (= $\sigma$ /nq). But in an undegenerated semiconductor,  $\nu_x$  depends on the kinetic energy of the carriers, so the hole coefficient is expressed by

$$R_H = \frac{\mu_H}{\mu_\sigma} \cdot \frac{1}{nq} = \gamma \frac{1}{nq} \tag{3.24}$$

If the carriers are scattered only by the crystal lattice, then  $\gamma = 3\pi/8$ . And if the carriers are scattered by ionized impurity atoms, the value is  $\gamma = 315\pi/512$ . These scattering mechanisms are related in a complex way to the types of impurities, the concentration of impurities, and the temperature. In general, scattering by the crystal lattice is effective near normal temperature, and scattering by ionized impurities is effective at low temperature. The higher the impurity concentration is, the more pronounced is the scattering by ionized impurities, and the difference in mobility of electrons and holes is greater in a compound semiconductor than in a simple semiconductor such as germanium or silicon.

In measuring the hole coefficient, the rectifiability and contact resistance are smaller than if measuring the resistivity, and must be more robust with respect to temperature changes. Therefore long arms as shown in Figure 3.17 are extended so as to make large-area contact possible. The forming of such a sample depends on the ultrasonic machining machine and the etching technology, but what is important is that the width and thickness of the trunk part in the middle be uniform and that the arms that are oriented toward the middle be correctly oriented. If the opposition of these arms is bad, then an unbalanced voltage will arise even when no magnetic field is applied. This voltage is measured by reversing the magnetic field and can be

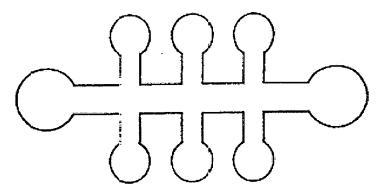


Fig. 3.17: Centipede-shaped sample for measuring hole coefficient resistivity

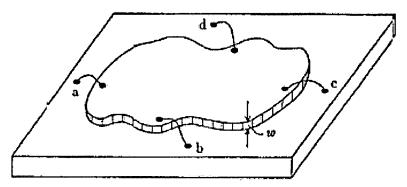


Fig. 3.18: Sample for van der Pauw method

eliminated, but if an electrometer is used, the precision with which measurements are read will be worse. And in order to eliminate the effect of the fact that the hole voltage is shorted-circuited by contact of the two ends, the ratio of the length to the width must be set to a factor of 4 or greater.

Depending on the sample, sometimes forming cannot be done as in Figure 3.17. For such a sample, if it has a uniform board shape and a uniform distribution of impurities, there is a convenient method (the van der Pauw method) for measuring the resistivity and hole coefficient by providing four ohmic electrodes as in Figure 3.18. This has the advantages that measurements can be made even on a small sample, there is no need to make geometrical measurements such as of the distance between electrodes, and no error arises due to the geometrical arrangement.

Given a sample, one measures the voltage  $V_{\rm cd}$  that arises between electrodes c and d when current  $I_{\rm ab}$  flows between electrodes a and b, and the voltage  $V_{\rm da}$  that arises between electrodes d and a when current  $I_{\rm bc}$ 

flows between electrodes b and c. It is important to verify on a graph that the current-voltage relationship is ohmic.

Setting

$$R_1 = \frac{V_{\text{ed}}}{I_{\text{ob}}},\tag{3.25}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{V_{\text{cd}}}{I_{\text{ab}}}, \qquad (3.25)$$

$$R_2 = \frac{V_{\text{da}}}{I_{\text{bc}}} \qquad (3.26)$$

the resistivity is given by

$$\rho = \frac{\pi w}{\ln 2} \cdot \frac{R_1 + R_2}{2} f\left(\frac{R_1}{R_2}\right) \tag{3.27}$$

Here, f is a function of  $R_1/R_2$  and is as in Figure 3.19. If  $R_1/R_2 < 1.5$ , it may be taken that f = 1.

Next, one measures the voltage that arises between a and c when magnetic field H is applied to the sample perpendicularly and current is made to flow between b and d; adopting the notation

$$\frac{V_{ac}}{I_{bd}} = R_{bd,ac} \tag{3.28}$$

the hole coefficient, in practical units, is given by the formula

$$R_H = \frac{iv}{H} J R_{\text{bd,ac}} \times 10^8 \tag{3.28}$$

where  $\Delta R_{\rm bd,ac}$  is the change in (3.28) between when a magnetic field is not applied and is applied.

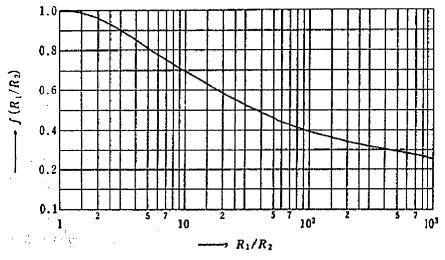


Figure 3.19: Correction term for the van der Pauw method

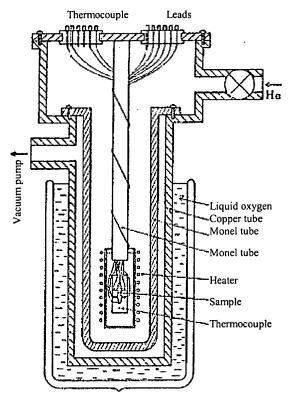


Figure 3.20: Cryostat for measuring temperature changes in hole coefficient and resistivity

A cryostat is needed for measuring the hole coefficient, because measurements are taken in a wide temperature range, from the temperature of [liquid] helium to several hundred degrees C. The temperature of the parts that hold the sample must be uniform, there must be good temperature stability as time passes, and it must be controllable.

Figure 3.20 illustrates the principle of the cryostat, which can be used even at the temperature of [liquid] helium. The interior of an ordinary Dewar flask is silver-plated to prevent radiant heat. The sample is mechanically pressed on a Teflon plate and is put into a copper or brass cylinder. This pipe is for stabilizing the temperature, but it also serves to block the light. A heater for temperature control is attached to the outside of the copper pipe; for low temperature it is wound with constantan wire or platinum-rhodium wire, and for high temperature it is wound with molybdenum and tungsten wire. Temperature measurement is important when measuring the hole coefficient. Near the boiling point of helium (4.22 K), the internal pressure in a Dewar flask containing liquid helium is measured with a manometer, and the temperature is measured from the known pressure-temperature relationship. At 20 K or less, a metal thermocouple is used.

In measuring the hole voltage, a high-sensitivity potentiometer or electrometer is used. If too large a voltage is impressed on the current terminals, a small number of injected carriers drift, lowering the hole voltage. And at a low temperature, the carriers tend to become hot, and because of this the electric field must be set to 1 V/cm or less. Therefore the hole voltage necessarily becomes small. A 10<sup>-7</sup>-V potentiometer or vibrating-reed electrometer is used. This instrumentation must be both highly sensitive and have a high input resistance.

The carrier concentration, for example the electron concentration n, is expressed by

$$n = \left(\frac{2\pi m_n kT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{N_D - N_A}{N_A}\right) \exp\left(\frac{E_D - E_C}{kT}\right)$$
(3. 29)

where  $E_C$  is the lower end of the conduction band and  $E_D$  is the donor impurity level. Taking the logarithm of both sides, we have

$$\ln n \propto \frac{E_D - E_C}{kT}.$$
(3. 30)

Therefore it is convenient to plot the hole coefficient on a logarithmic scale and the reciprocal of the temperature on a linear scale. Figure 3.21 shows the measurement results for silicon that contains arsenic as a donor impurity. The slope of the straight-line portion is given by  $(E_D-E_C)/k$ , and therefore it can be learned how far the donor impurity level is separated from the lower end of the conduction band. The same can also

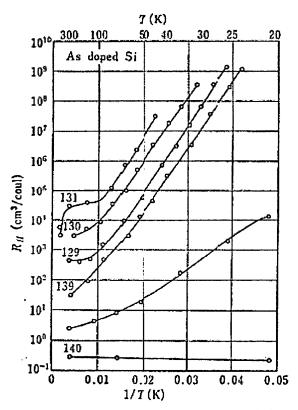


Figure 3.21: Temperature change of hole coefficient of silicon doped with arsenic (As)

be done in the case of acceptor impurities. The level of impurity atoms of various kinds has already been measured for germanium and silicon. So if the type of impurity is unknown, what the impurity is can conversely be learned by measuring the impurity level.

In Figure 3.21, the hole coefficient tends to suddenly become smaller at high temperatures. This is because at high temperatures, electron-hole pairs are directly excited by the thermal energy; this is called the intrinsic region, and this slope gives the width of the forbidden band.

In addition, when the hole coefficient in the low-temperature region is measured, the hole coefficient passes through its maximum value and declines. This is because, as a result of the fact that at low temperatures most of the electrons fall into the arsenic impurity level, electrical conduction takes place not just in the conduction band but also between impurity levels. This phenomenon is called impurity conduction. In this way, the relationship between the hole coefficient and the temperature tells something about the structure in the region where carriers are generated. Investigating the relationship of hole mobility and temperature will tell what kind of structure the generated carriers have and whether they will move within the semiconductor. The temperature dependence of the mobility varies depending on whether it is due to crystal lattice scattering, scattering by ionized impurities, or other scattering between carriers.

#### 3.3 Measurement of lifetime

The lifetime, in addition to being an important value that determines the current gain, saturated current value, switching speed, and other properties of transistors, is also a quantity that is useful for judging the purity and perfection of crystals. For a perfect crystal, it is theoretically calculated that the value of the lifetime for germanium or silicon will amount to several seconds, but in actual crystals it reaches a value of no more than from  $0.1 \mu$ sec to several msec. This is thought to be due to lattice defects or impurities in the crystal, and conversely something can be learned about the physical properties of a crystal from its lifetime.

In general the lifetime is determined by the proportion of recombination of excessive electron-hole pairs, but the recombination process can be divided into (a) direct recombination, (b) recombination by recombination center, and (c) recombination by trap. In the case of (a) or (b), the lifetime of electrons and holes is almost the same, but in the case of (c), the two values are very different.

Recombination occurs not just inside the solid but also on the crystal surface, and in the case of devices, surface recombination is the more important problem. In this case, the lifeti[page 111 ends here in mid-word]

... is called ... boundary). In crystals having a diamond or sphalerite structure, the twin boundary is generally parallel to the (111) plane. In the case of a sphalerite structure that consists of atoms of two types, a characteristic twin relationship as shown in the diagram arises.

高い場合には外来維音電放により誤差を生じやすいので,できるだけ電磁シー ルドされた状態で測定するほうがよい.

4探針を圧接して ${\mathbb G}$ 低間に電流  $I({\mathsf A})$  を流し, ${\mathbb G}$ ③間の電圧  $V({\mathsf V})$  を測定

し、針間隔を図のように 
$$S_1, S_2, S_3$$
(cm) とすれば、
$$V = \frac{\rho I}{2\pi} \left( \frac{1}{S_1} + \frac{1}{S_3} - \frac{1}{S_2 + S_3} - \frac{1}{S_1 + S_2} \right) \tag{3.14}$$

したがって抵抗率 ρ は

$$0 = \frac{2\pi V}{I} \left( \frac{1}{S_1} + \frac{1}{S_3} - \frac{1}{S_2 + S_3} - \frac{1}{S_1 + S_2} \right)^{-1}$$
 (3.15)

となり、S1=S1=S1=S であれば

$$=\frac{2\pi SV}{I} \tag{3.16}$$

想的には無限大と近似できる場合である. 実際の試料は有限の大きさであるの 式 (3.16) が成り立つのは, 試料の寸法が針の間隔に比して十分大きく, 理

形成し,そのエピタキシャル層の平均の抵抗率からエピタキシャル層に含まれ る不純物濃度を知るなどである. そのような場合には, 主として電流の流れる 必要となる.たとえば,不純物を拡散して形成した pn 接合において,拡散層 の平均の抵抗率を知りたい場合や,高抵抗基板上に低抵抗エピタキシャル層を 針の間隔にくらべて厚さが十分薄い試料についての抵抗率の測定はしばしば で,針の位置や試料の形状を考慮した補正を必要とする. 薄い層の厚さを w(cm) とすれば, その抵抗率は

$$\rho = \frac{V}{I} w \frac{\pi}{\ln 2} F\left(\frac{w}{s}\right) \tag{3.17}$$

となる. s は針の間隔で,F(w/s) は表 3.1 に与えられる補正項である. 表か らわかるように w/s が十分小さく,針の間隔にくらべて十分薄い拡散層やエピ タキシャル層の場合には F(w/s) は1としてさしつかえない.この場合抵抗率

$$\rho = \frac{V}{I} w \frac{\pi}{\ln 2} \tag{3.19}$$

#/ln2 の整数倍となるように図表を作っておけば,電圧の厚みにより簡単に抵 で与えられる、4探針の間隔はすでにわかっているのであるから,電流値を

## 3.2 抵抗率とホール保数の測定

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表 3.1 4 端針法の補正項

抗母が求められる.

これまで説明してきたのは直流 4 探針法である。 実際の測定においては,探針の接触抵抗が大きい こと,熱勾配などのため誤差を生じやすい.そこ でこれらの欠点を改善するため交流プリッジ法が 製法の途中で結晶の不純物分布をすみやかに、結 考案され,シリコンやゲルマニウムの帯域溶融精 晶に加工を加えることなく測定でき,非常に便利

F(w/s)	0.9995	0.9974	0.9948	0.9898	0.9798	0.9600	0.9214	0.8907	0.8490	0. 7938	0.7225	0.6336
s/m	0.4	0.5	0.5555	0.6250	0.7143	0. 8333	1.0	1.1111	1.25	1.4286	1.6666	2.0

## 3.2.2 ホール係数の測定

抵抗率からは担体の数と移動度の積だけしか知ることはできないが,ホール 係数は担体の種類と数を与える.さらにホール係数の温度依存性を測定するこ とにより不純物準位や移動度の温度依存性を知ることができる.

ホール係数の測定原理を図 3.16 に示す.長力形試料の両端にオーミック電 極をもうけ,電流 I(A) を流す.その方向を \*\* 方向とする.次に y 方向に磁 場  $H(\mathrm{gauss})$  を加えると,担体は z 方向に力を受ける. $\mathrm{p}$  型半導体では正孔 が,n 型半導体では電子が図 3.16 の上面に蓄積される.平衡状態において担 体は ェ 方向に流れており,垂直方向に作用する力はない.y 方向に磁場 H が 加わると,この磁場が担体に作用する力と2方向に作用する電界の力とが平衡

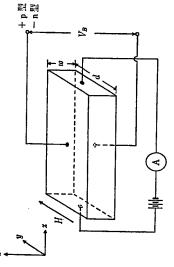


図 3.16 ホール効果の測定原理図

7 % 1 % 2 % 7. 1. 1

$$\frac{qV}{w} = \frac{1}{c}v_xH$$

(3.19)

が成り立つ.25 は z 方向の担体の速度で,11 を担体濃度とすると

$$v_x = \frac{I}{nwd} \tag{3.20}$$

である. c は光速 (cgs 単位) である. したがって, 実用単位では

$$V = \frac{10^{-8}IH}{nqd}$$
 (3.21)

なる電位差が試料の上下の面の間に生ずる. ここに

$$R_H = \frac{1}{nq} {3.22}$$

をホール係数という. $R_H$  と電気伝導度 o(=1/
ho) の積はホール移動度とよばれ

$$\mu_H = R_H \sigma \tag{}$$

で表わされる

金属や抵抗率の非常に小さい縮退した半導体では,担体は一様な速度 v= で い.しかし縮退していない半導体では ゥェ は担体の運動エネルギーに依存する 移動するとみなすことができ,ホール移動度は流れの移動度 με(=σ/ng) に等し から、ホール係数は

$$R_H = \frac{\mu_H}{\mu_\sigma} \cdot \frac{1}{nq} = r \frac{1}{nq}$$
 (3. 2)

ではイオン化した不純物による散乱が有効になる.不純物濃度が高くなるほど, 温度に複雑な関係がある.一般には常温付近では結晶格子による散乱が,低温 イオン化した不純物による散乱が顕著になり,ゲルマニウムやシリコンのよう で表わされる. 担体が結晶格子のみによって散乱される場合には 7=3~/8 で ある.またイオン化した不純物原子によって担体が散乱される場合には ア= な単一半導体にくらべて,化合物半導体では電子と正孔の移動度の差は大きく 315π/512 という値になる.これらの散乱機構は不純物の種類,不純物濃度,

抵抗が小さく,温度変化に対しても丈夫でなければならない.したがって大面 積の接触が可能なように,図 3.17 に示すような長い腕を出す.このような試 ホール係数の測定においては,抵抗率の測定の場合以上に整流性および接触

3.2 抵抗率とホール保数の測定

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図 3.17 ホール保数抵抗率測定用むかで型試料

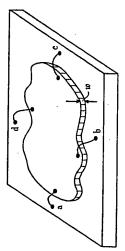


図 3.18 van der Pauw 法の試料

幹の部分の幅と厚さが一様であって,中央に向きあった腕が正しく向きあって いることである。もしこの腕の対向が悪いと、磁場をかけないときすでに不平 **繁電圧が発生する.この電圧は電流および磁場を逆転して測定を行なって,取** 料の成型は超音波加工機またはエッチング技術によるが,大切なことは中央の うことの影響を除くためには,長さと幅の比を4倍以上にしてやる必要がある。 電極間 精度が悪くなってしまう.またホール電圧を両端のコンタクトで短絡してしま 試料によっては図 3.17 のように成型できない場合がある.そのような試料 **に,4個のオーミック電極をもうけて,抵抗率およびホール係数を測定する便** り除くことができるが,エレクトロメータを使用するような場合には,読み取り こ対しては、厚さが一様な板状で不純物分布が均一であれば、図 3.18 のよう **の距離等の幾何学的測定が不要で,しかも幾何学的配置による誤差を生じない** 利な方法がある(van der Pauw 法). 小さな試料でも測定が可能で, などの利点がある. 与えられた試料の電極 a, b 間に電流 I₀b を流したときの電極 c, d 間に生 ずる電圧  $V_{
m cd}$  および電極 b, c 間に電流  $I_{
m be}$  を流したときの電極 d, a 間に

$$R_1 = \frac{V_{\text{ed}}}{I_{\text{ob}}},\tag{3.25}$$

とすれば抵抗率は

$$\rho = \frac{\pi \iota \nu}{\ln 2} \cdot \frac{R_1 + R_2}{2} f\left(\frac{R_1}{R_2}\right) \tag{3.27}$$

で与えられる. f は  $R_i/R_i$  の関数で図 3.19 のようになる.  $R_i/R_i<1.5$  なら ば チ=1 とみなしてよい. 次に試料に垂直に磁場 H をかけ, bd 間に電流を流したとき, ac 間に生ず る電圧を測定し,

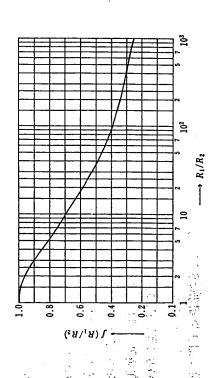
$$\frac{V_{ac}}{I_{bd}} = R_{bd,ac} \tag{3.28}$$

と表わすと,ホール係数は実用単位で次のように与えられる.

$$R_H = \frac{w}{H} A R_{bd,ac} \times 10^s \tag{3.28}$$

ただし, 4Rbd.ac は磁場をかけないときとかけたときの(3.28)の変化分であ

ホール係数測定は, ヘリウム温度から数100°C程度の広い温度範囲で行なう



3.2 抵抗率とホール係数の測定

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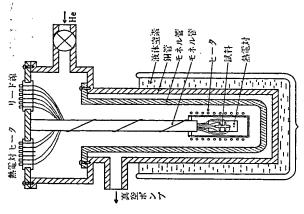


図 3.20 ホール係数抵抗率の温度変化測定用クライオスタット

試料を納めた部分の温度が一様で、 時間的に温度の安定度がよく,かつ制御可能でなくてはならない ために、クライオスタットが必要である。

瓶の内側には銀メッキが施され,輻射熱を防いでいる.試料はテフロン板に機 **城的に圧着され,銅または黄銅の円筒に納められる.このパイプは温度を安定** ュワー瓶は耐熱ガラスまたはステンレス鋼でできたものである.普通ジュワー させるためのものであるが,遮光の役割もはたしている.温度制御用ヒータは 銅パイプの外側に取り付けられ、低温の場合はコンスタンタン線や白金ロジウ 4線,高温ではモリブデン,タングステン線を巻いて作る.温度測定はホール を入れたデュワーの内圧をマノメータで測定し,既知の圧力温度の関係から温 係数測定の際に重要である.~リウムの沸点 (4.22K) 付近では液体~リウム ヘリウム温度でも使用可能なクライオスタットの原理を図 3.20 に示す. 隻を測定する,20K 以下では金属の熟電対を使用する。

ホール電圧の測定には高感度ポテンショメータまたはエレクトロメータを使 フトしてホール電圧を低くする. また低温では担体は hot (熱い) になりやす 用する.電流端子にあまり大きな電圧を印加すると注入された少数担体がドリ

く,そのために電界は 1 V/cm 以下にせねばならない.したがってホール電圧 は必然的に小さくなる.10-7∨のポテンショメータまたは振動容量型電位差計 この計器は高感度であると同時に, 入力抵抗が非常に高いこと が使用される. が要求される.

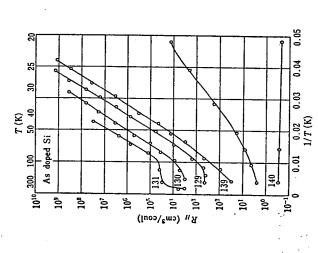
担体濃度たとえば電子濃度 n は

$$n = \left(\frac{2\pi m_n kT}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{N_D - N_A}{N_A}\right) \exp\left(\frac{E_D - E_C}{kT}\right)$$
(3.29)

Eo は伝導帯の下端, Eoはドナー不純物準位を示す。両辺の対 で表わされる. 数かとると

$$\ln n \propto \frac{E_D - E_C}{kT}.$$
(3.30)

したがってホール係数を対数目盛に、温度の逆数を線形目盛にそれぞれプロッ 図 3.21 は砒素をドナー不純物として含むシリコンに ドナー不純物準位が伝導帯の下端からいくら離れているかを知ることができる。 関する測定結果を示す.直線部分の勾配は  $(E_D-E_G)/k$  を与え,したがって, トするのが便利である。



## 3.3 ライフタイムの測定

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ムやシリコンに関してはすでに各種の不純物原子についてその準位が測定され アクセプタ不純物の場合についても同様に取り扱うことができる.ゲルマニウ ている. そこでもし不純物の種類が不明のばあいには, 不純物準位を測定して 逆に不純物がなんであるかを知ることもできる.

高温になって熱エネルギーにより電子正孔対が直接励起されたためで,真性領 図 3.21 で高温側でホール係数が急に小さくなっている領域がある. 域とよばれ,この勾配は禁止帯幅を与える.

さらに低温領域のホール係数を測定するとホール係数は最大値を通り減少す る.これは電子が低温になり大部分が砒素の不純物準位に落ち込んでしまった この現象は不純物伝導といわれる.このようにホール係数と温度との関係は担 体発生領域についての機構を教えてくれる.ホール移動度と温度の関係を調べ れば,発生した担体がどのような機構で半導体中に移動するかを知らせてくれ る.移動度は結晶格子の散乱,イオン化した不純物による散乱,その他担体ど 電気伝導が伝導帯だけでなく不純物準位間でも行なわれるためである。 うしでの散乱によってそれぞれ異なった温度依存性を示す. 結果,

# 3.3 ライフタイムの測定

ライフタイムはトランジスタの電流利得, 飽和電流値, スイッチング速度など を決める重要な値であると同時に,結晶の純度や完全性を判断する有用な量で もある.結晶が完全な場合には,ゲルマニウムやシリコンのライフタイムの値 は数秒の程度に達することが理論的に計算されているが,実際の結晶では 0.1 考えられており,ライフタイムから逆に結晶の物理的性質を知ることができる. μsec~数 msec の値にすぎない. これは結晶中の格子欠陥や不純物のためと

一般にライフタイムは過剰な電子正孔対の再結合の割合で定まるものである が, 再結合の過程は, (a) 直接再結合, (b) 再結合中心による再結合, (c) ト ラップによる再結台に分けられる. (a),(b) の場合は,電子と正孔のライフタ. 再結合は固体中で起こるだけでなく,結晶表面においても起こり,デバイス の場合には表面再結合がより重要な問題となってくる。この場合,ライフタイ イムはほとんど同じであるが, (c) の場合には両者の値は非常に異なる.

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boundary)という. ダイヤモンド構造や閃亜鉛鉱型構造の結晶において, 双晶 境界は一般に (111) 面に平行である.2種の原子からできている閃亜鉛鉱型構 造の場合には図のような特有の双晶関係を生ずる.

出。

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